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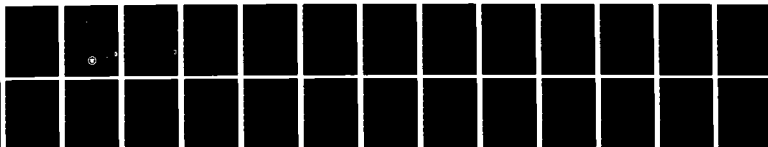
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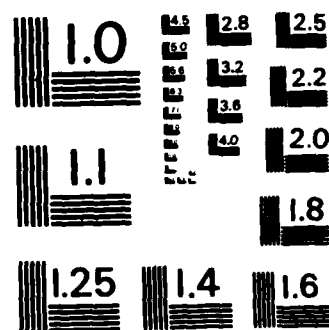
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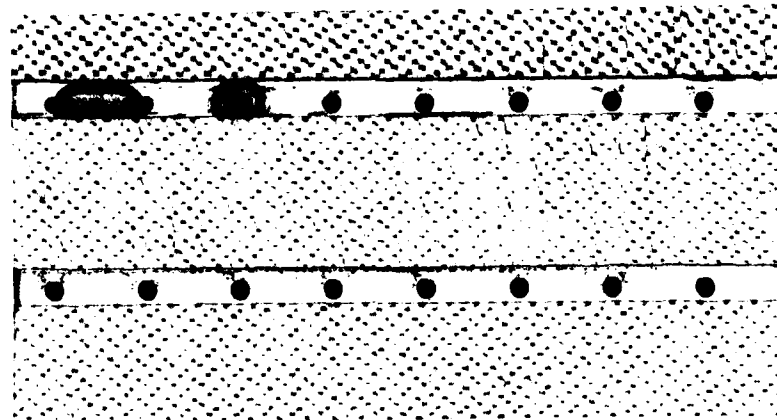


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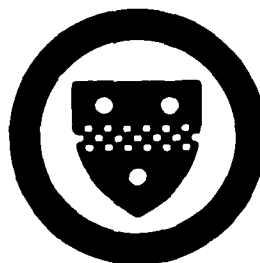
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Modified Nonparametric Kernel Estimates Of A Regression
Function And Their Consistencies With Rates*

by

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Technical Report #85-12



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Modified nonparametric kernel estimates of a regression
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Summary: Two sets of modified kernel estimates of a regression function are proposed: one when a bound on the regression function is known and the other when nothing of this sort is at hand. Explicit bounds on the mean square errors of the estimators are obtained. Pointwise as well as uniform consistency in mean square and consistency in probability of the estimators are proved. Speed of convergence in each case is investigated.

1. INTRODUCTION

The theory of regression is concerned with the prediction of the value of a variable, called the response or dependent variable, at a given value of another (correlated) variable, called the predictor or independent variable. Prediction is needed in several practical situations. For example, an agriculturist wants to know the yield of wheat at an amount of a specified fertilizer, a meteorologist wants to forecast weather several hours ahead on the basis of previous atmospheric measurements and a physician is interested in determining the weight of a patient in terms of the number of weeks he or she has been on a diet. —————) See p - A -

Let us denote the response variable by Y and the predictor variable (also known as regressor variable) by X . Then the regression of Y on X evaluated at $X = x$ is given by

$$r(x) = E(Y|X = x).$$

It is well known that the regression curve $r(X)$ of Y on X is the best predictor of Y in terms of X in the sense that if $t(X)$ is any other predictor of Y , then the average squared error incurred due to predictor $t(X)$ is not smaller than that incurred due to predictor $r(X)$.

If the joint distribution of the two variables X and Y is known, then the prediction of Y can be made by

computing the conditional expectation of Y at the desired value of X . Otherwise, the regression curve $r(x)$ is not directly available to us. In such situations, if observations $(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)$ on (X, Y) are at hand, then sometimes the theory of least square methods or that of maximum likelihood methods can be applied to estimation of $r(x)$, but this may be done only if the exact model (the functional form) of the regression curve is known, and, further, for the use of m.l. methods, the distribution of the errors

$$e_j = Y_j - E(Y_j | X)$$

must also be known.

However, the population of all suitable functional forms (or of the distributions of errors) is quite often unpractically large. Therefore, no matter how carefully chosen a model is adopted, there is always a possibility of misspecification. Moreover, even if the exact functional form of the regression model involving unknown parameters is known (which is extremely rare), the above methods of least squares and/or of the maximum likelihood sometimes do not work at all. This is especially the case when the model is the mixture of polynomial, exponential, reciprocal, logarithmic, trigonometric and/or likewise functions of the regressor variables, each involving unknown parameters.

The problems of estimation of a regression curve r when nothing is known about the functional form of r but the conditional density of Y given $X = x$ is known to belong to certain class of densities have been treated by Kale (1962), Nadaraya (1964, 1965), Singh and Tracy (1977) and Singh (1980). Whereas in the first three of these papers, the conditional density of Y given $X = x$ is normal with mean x and variance one, and the unconditional distribution function of X possesses a density, in the third and fourth papers the density of Y given $X = x$ is of the form $C(y)u(x)e^{-yX}$ and $C(y)u(x)e^{-y/x}$ respectively and the distribution of X need not possess a density. However, the methods cited in these works are too restrictive and may also lead to misspecification of the model, because the conditional density of Y given $X = x$ is rarely known or may incorrectly be specified.

The only way of avoiding misspecification of the functional form of the regression model or of the distributional form of the errors is, in fact, to assume no specific parametric functional form of the model or of the distribution of errors, that is to estimate the regression function completely nonparametrically. Nadaraya (1964), Watson (1964), Rosenblatt (1967), Noda (1976) and Collomb (1977, 1979) are among the firsts to consider estimating regression function r by r_n (defined below

nonparametrically using Rosenblatt (1956) - Parzen (1962) type kernel estimates of a density function. Various asymptotic properties of these estimates, known as kernel estimates of a regression function, have been studied in the literature by a number of authors including the above authors as well as by Nadaraya (1974), Konakov (1977) and Révész (1979). Schuster (1972) proved the asymptotic normality of these estimates whereas Noda (1976) proved the pointwise strong consistency and Collomb (1979), Devroye (1979), Wandl (1980) and Mack and Silverman (1982) proved uniform strong consistency. Devroye and Wagner (1980) and Spiegelman and Sacks (1980) proved L^P convergence of r_n in the sense that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E \int |r_n(x) - r(x)|^P d\mu(x) = 0$ where μ is a probability measure generated by the r.v. X . However, strong convergence (pointwise or uniform) and L^P convergence concepts differ from the pointwise and/or uniform mean square consistency concept we shall deal with. Moreover the kernel estimates r_n of a regression function based on a sample $\{(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)\}$ on (X, Y) considered in the above and other works are defined by $r_n = (h_n/g_n)$ where

$$h_n(x) = (n\delta)^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n Y_j K((X_j - x)/\delta) \quad \text{and}$$

$$g_n(x) = (n\delta)^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n K((X_j - x)/\delta), \quad \text{with } K \text{ and } \delta \text{ being}$$

respectively the kernel and the windowwidth functions.

Hence with such an estimate, since the kernel function K could assume a zero, negative or positive value, there is always a chance of blowing up the estimate h_n/g_n itself (or of excessively overestimating the regression) in practice for any given set of data whenever g_n is near zero. To avoid this problem, in this paper we consider a modified kernel estimate which is a retraction of the function h_n/g_n to an interval $[-c_n, c_n]$ with c_n converging to infinity with certain rate.

In Section 2 we introduce our modified kernel estimate of the regression function. In Section 3 we prove point-wise mean square, consistency and deduce from it the weak consistency of our estimates. In each case the speed of convergence is examined. An explicit bound for the mean square error, lacking to date in the literature for the kernel type regression estimates, is also obtained. In Section 4 uniform mean square and uniform weak consistencies are proved and their speeds of convergence are investigated. In Section 5 remarks are made on the choice of windowwidth function, kernel function and the sequence $\{c_n\}$.

Throughout this paper convergence of a function depending on n is w.r.t. $n \rightarrow \infty$. The integrals without showing the limits are over the whole real line.

2. ESTIMATORS OF REGRESSION CURVES

Let f be the joint density of the regressor variable X and the response variable Y and, let

$$h(x) = \int yf(x,y)dy \quad \text{and} \quad g(x) = \int f(x,y)dy.$$

Then the regression curve of Y on X evaluated at $X = x$ is

$$(2.1) \quad r(x) = E(Y|X = x) = \frac{h(x)}{g(x)}, \text{ provided } g(x) \neq 0.$$

Our method of estimation of r involves estimation of h and g on the basis of the random sample $\{(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)\}$ on (X, Y) .

Let s be a positive integer and K_s be the class of all real valued Borel measurable bounded functions K such that

$$(2.2) \quad \int K(y) dy = 1, \quad \int y^j K(y) dy = 0 \quad \text{for } j = 1, \dots, s-1, \\ \int |y|^s |K(y)| dy < \infty \quad \text{and} \quad |yK(y)| \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } |y| \rightarrow \infty.$$

Kernels of the type (2.2) have been used in density estimates by Johns and Van Ryzin (1972), and Singh (1977 and 1981), among others. For any given s , the class K_s is quite large. For example, for $s = 1$ and 2 ,
 $K(y) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \exp(-y^2/2) I(-\infty < y < \infty)$ or
 $K(y) = (2a)^{-1} I(-a < y < a)$ for an $a > 0$ belong to K_s .
 For $s = 3$ and 4 , the functions $K(y) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} [2 \exp(-y^2/2) - (1/2) \exp(-y^2/4)] I(-\infty < y < \infty)$ or
 $K(y) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} (1/2) (3-y^2) \exp(-y^2/2) I(-\infty < y < \infty)$ belong to K_s . For any given s , polynomials $K(y)$ in y on a finite interval (a, b) belonging to K_s can be constructed (e.g. see Singh (1981)).

Let $\delta = \delta_n$ and $\eta = \eta_n$ be two positive sequences of numbers based on the sample size n so that $\max\{\delta_n, \eta_n\} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Let x be a point at which we wish to estimate $r(x)$. For a fixed s , let K be a fixed member of K_s . Let

$$(2.3) \quad \hat{h}(x) = (n\delta)^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n Y_j K\left(\frac{X_j - x}{\delta}\right)$$

and

$$(2.4) \quad \hat{g}(x) = (n\eta)^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n K\left(\frac{X_j - x}{\eta}\right)$$

Let

$$(2.5) \quad r_n(x) = \frac{\hat{h}(x)}{\hat{g}(x)}.$$

In the existing literature the kernel type estimates of the regression curve (excluding those of the type considered in Priestley and Chao (1972), Bhattacharya (1976), Benedetti (1977), Stone (1977) and Wahba (1978)) are exactly of the type (2.5). However as noted earlier, $\hat{g}(x)$ could be zero or near zero at a number of points x for any given set of data on (X, Y) with a number of symmetric kernels K . In such situations it is hardly advisable to use r_n as an estimate of r . To avoid such problems in this paper, we propose a retraction of r_n and study pointwise as well as uniform consistencies.

For a position b , let $\{a\}_b$ stand for $-b$, a or b according as $a < -b$, $|a| \leq b$ or $a > b$. Let $c_n = c_n(x)$ be a positive function of n and x which for each x converges to infinity as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Our proposed estimator of $r(x)$ is

$$(2.6) \quad \hat{r}(x) = \frac{\left\{ \delta^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n Y_j K\left(\frac{X_j - x}{\delta}\right) \right\}}{\left\{ \eta^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n K\left(\frac{X_j - x}{\eta}\right) \right\}} c_n.$$

However, if we have the knowledge of some function $c_0(x)$ such that $-c_0(x) \leq r(x) \leq c_0(x)$, our proposed estimator of $r(x)$ would be

$$r^*(x) = \frac{\left\{ \delta^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n Y_j K\left(\frac{X_j - x}{\delta}\right) \right\}}{\left\{ \eta^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n K\left(\frac{X_j - x}{\eta}\right) \right\}} c_0.$$

A discussion on the choice of c_n , the bandwidth functions δ and η and the kernel function K is made in Section 5.

3. POINTWISE CONSISTENCIES WITH AN UPPER BOUND FOR MEAN SQUARE ERRORS

In this section we prove the pointwise mean square consistency (and hence also the consistency in probability)

of our estimators \hat{r} and r^* , and obtain the speed of convergence in each case. In the sequel we prove also the mean square consistency of \hat{h} and \hat{g} as estimators of h and g and establish the speed of convergence. An explicit bound for the mean square errors of \hat{r} and r^* are also obtained.

We denote $g_s(x) = \int f^{(s,0)}(x,y)dy$ where $f^{(s,0)}(x,y) = \partial^s f(x,y)/\partial x^s$, $h_s(x) = \int y f^{(s,0)}(x,y)dy$ and $p(x) = \int y^2 f(x,y)dy$. Under certain regularity conditions g_s and h_s are the s^{th} partial derivatives of g and h . We however make no such regularity assumptions. Whenever there is no ambiguity, we will not display the argument x in $r(x)$, $\hat{r}(x)$, $r^*(x)$, $c_n(x)$, $h(x)$, $g(x)$, $h_s(x)$, $g_s(x)$ and $p(x)$ throughout this paper.

Theorem 3.1. Let h_s , g_s and p be continuous at x and $g(x) > 0$. Then

$$(3.0) \quad E(\hat{r}(x) - r(x))^2 = O(c_n^2 \cdot \gamma_n)$$

where

$$\gamma_n = \max\{\delta^{2s}, n^{2s}, (n\delta)^{-1}, (n\eta)^{-1}\}.$$

To prove the theorem we will need three lemmas, the first of which is due to Singh (1977b).

Lemma 3.1. If g in the definition of r is not zero,
then for every $L > 0$,

$$(3.1) \quad E\left(\left|\frac{\hat{h}}{\hat{g}} - r\right| \wedge L\right)^2 \leq 8(g)^{-1} [E(\hat{h}-h)^2 + (|r|^2 + \frac{L^2}{2})E(\hat{g}-g)^2].$$

Proof. The inequality is a special case of the lemma in the Appendix of Singh (1977b) and hence it does not need a separate proof.

In the next two lemmas we prove the mean square consistencies of \hat{h} as an estimator of h and of \hat{g} as an estimator of g respectively, and in each case we obtain rates of convergence. With some choices of δ and n these rates are of the order $O(n^{-2s/(1+2s)})$, and hence can be made arbitrarily close to $O(n^{-1})$ by taking s sufficiently large (subject to (2.2)).

Lemma 3.2. Let h_s and p be continuous at x . Then the asymptotic behaviour of the mean square error of \hat{h} at x is given by

$$(3.2) \quad \text{MSE}(\hat{h}(x)) = E(\hat{h}(x) - h(x))^2 \\ \sim \left[\left(\frac{\delta^s}{s!} h_s(x) \int t^s K(t) \right)^2 + (n\delta)^{-1} p(x) \int K^2 \right].$$

Proof. We first obtain the asymptotic behaviors of $E\hat{h}$ and $\text{var}(\hat{h})$. Then we combine these to obtain (3.2).

Since $(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)$ are i.i.d. with joint density f , from (2.3), we can write

$$(3.3) \quad E\hat{h}(x) = \iint yK(t)f(x+\delta t, y)dt dy.$$

Now expanding $f(x+\delta t, y)$ at (x, y) in δt by Taylor series expansion with the integral form of the remainder, we write

$$\begin{aligned} f(x+\delta t, y) &= \sum_{j=0}^{s-1} \frac{(\delta t)^j}{j!} f^{(j,0)}(x, y) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{(s-1)!} \int_x^{x+\delta t} (x+\delta t-u)^{s-1} f^{(s,0)}(u, y) du. \end{aligned}$$

In view of this expansion and the orthogonality properties (2.2) of K we get from (3.3),

$$(3.4) \quad \begin{aligned} E\hat{h}(x) &= \int yf(x, y) dy \\ &\quad + \iint yK(t) \left\{ \frac{1}{(s-1)!} \int_x^{x+\delta t} (x+\delta t-u)^{s-1} f^{(s,0)}(u, y) du \right\} dt dy. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$(3.5) \quad \delta^{-s} E(\hat{h}(x) - h(x)) = \frac{\delta^{-s}}{(s-1)!} \iint yK(t) \int_x^{x+\delta t} (x+\delta t-u)^{s-1} \cdot f^{(s,0)}(u, y) du dt dy.$$

But since x is a point of continuity of $h_s(x) = \int yf^{(s,0)}(x, y) dy$, K is bounded with $|yK(y)| \rightarrow 0$ as $|y| \rightarrow \infty$, by arguments used in Singh (1977a) or in Menon, Prasad and Singh (1981), the rhs of (3.5) is, as $n \rightarrow \infty$, asymptotically equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{\delta^{-s}}{(s-1)!} \int y f^{(s,0)}(x,y) fK(t) \int_x^{x+\delta t} (x+\delta t-u)^{s-1} du dt dy \\ &= \frac{h_s}{s!} \int t^s K(t) dt, \end{aligned}$$

and we conclude that, as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$(3.6) \quad (\hat{E}h(x) - h(x)) \sim \delta^s \left(\frac{h_s(x)}{s!} \int t^s K(t) dt \right).$$

Now we will evaluate the variance of \hat{h} . By a change of variable we see that

$$(3.7) \quad \delta^{-1} E[Y_1 K(\frac{X_1 - x}{\delta})]^2 = \iint K^2(t) y^2 f(x+\delta t, y) dt dy.$$

Since p is continuous at x , by arguments similar to those given in Lemma 1 of Parzen (1962), the r.h.s. of (3.7) is asymptotically equivalent to $p(x) \int K^2$. Further, since

$$\delta^{-1} [EY_1 K(\frac{X_1 - x}{\delta})]^2 = \delta [\iint y K(t) f(x+\delta t, y) dt dy]^2 = \delta (\hat{E}h(x))^2$$

by (3.3), we have from (3.5), $\delta^{-1} [EY_1 K(\frac{X_1 - x}{\delta})]^2 = o(1)$.

Thus since $(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)$ are i.i.d., we conclude that

$$(3.8) \quad \text{var}(\hat{h}(x)) \sim (n\delta)^{-1} p(x) \int K^2.$$

Now (3.6) and (3.8) give (3.2). This completes the proof of Lemma (3.2).

Lemma 3.3. If g_s is continuous at x , then

$$(3.9) \quad \text{MSE}(\hat{g}(x)) \sim [(\frac{\eta^s}{s!} g_s(x) \int t^s K(t))^2 + (n\eta)^{-1} g(x) \int K^2],$$

and if, instead, $g^{(s)}$, the s^{th} order derivative of g is continuous at x , then (3.9) holds with g_s replaced by $g^{(s)}$.

Proof. Proof of (3.9) follows by arguments given for (3.2).

Remark 3.1. Taking δ and η proportional to $n^{-1/(2s+1)}$, we see from (3.2) and (3.9) that $\text{MSE}(\hat{h})$ and $\text{MSE}(\hat{g})$ are both of the order $O(n^{-2s/(1+2s)})$. The value of δ that minimizes the rhs of (3.8) and that of η that minimizes the rhs of (3.9), are, nevertheless, given by

$$(3.10) \quad \delta^* = \left[\frac{n^{-1} p(x) \int K^2}{2s (h_s(x) \int t^s K(t)/s!)^2} \right]^{1/(1+2s)}$$

and

$$(3.11) \quad \eta^* = \left[\frac{n^{-1} g(x) \int K^2}{2s (g_s(x) \int t^s K(t)/s!)^2} \right]^{1/(1+2s)}$$

respectively. Using these optimal values of δ and η one can easily obtain the asymptotic values of the mean square errors of \hat{h} and \hat{g} which are minimum over the class of all windowwidth functions δ and η . However, since the exact value of the ratio $p(x)/h_s^2(x)$ for δ^* and of the ratio $g(x)/g_s^2(x)$ for η^* are not known, only approximate

values of δ^* and η^* (by getting approximate values of these ratios), can be used in practice. The expression for η^* is noted in Rosenblatt (1956) (for $s = 2$) and in Singh (1979) for general s , among many others.

Proof of Theorem 3.1. Writing $|\hat{r}-r| = |(\hat{r}-r)_{c_n} + ((r)_{c_n} - r)|$, we have with probability one,

$$|\hat{r}-r| \leq \left(\left| \frac{\hat{h}}{\hat{g}} - r \right| \wedge c_n \right) + |r| I(|r| > c_n).$$

Hence by Lemma 3.1,

$$\begin{aligned} (3.12) \quad E(\hat{r}-r)^2 &\leq 16(g)^{-1} [E(\hat{h}-h)^2 \\ &\quad + \frac{3}{2} \max\{|r|^2, c_n^2\} E(\hat{g}-g)^2] \\ &\quad + 2|r|^2 I(|r| > c_n). \end{aligned}$$

Now since $c_n \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, there exists an $n_0 = n_0(x)$ such that for all $n \geq n_0$, $c_n(x) \geq |r(x)|$ and the second term on the rhs of (3.12) is equal to zero for all $n \geq n_0$. The rest of the proof is now an immediate consequence of (3.2) and (3.9).

Remark 3.2. Notice that (3.12) gives an explicit bound for each sample size for the mean square error of the estimator of the regression curve in terms of $MSE(\hat{h})$ and $MSE(\hat{g})$.

Exact asymptotic expressions for these terms are in turn presented in (3.2) and (3.9) respectively. Hence the exact asymptotic value of the bound (3.12) for $MSE(\hat{r})$ is at hand. To the best of our knowledge an explicit bound with an exact asymptotic value for the MSE of a nonparametric regression curve estimate, of whatsoever nature it may be, is lacking in the existing literature, inspite of a large number of articles on the subject.

Remark 3.3. From Theorem 3.1 it follows that if δ and η are chosen in a way so that

$$(3.13) \quad \delta \sim \eta = o(n^{-1/(1+2s)}),$$

then γ_n defined in Theorem 3.1 is of the order,

$$(3.14) \quad \gamma_n = o(n^{-2s/(1+2s)})$$

and

$$(3.15) \quad MSE(\hat{r}(x)) = o(n^{-2s/(1+2s)} c_n^2).$$

Remark 3.4. As pointed out earlier, if there is a known $c_0(x)$ such that $|r(x)| \leq c_0(x)$, we would instead consider estimating r by r^* defined in Section 2. It follows from the proof of Theorem 3.1 that

$$(3.16) \quad E(r^*(x) - r(x))^2 = o(\gamma_n).$$

Thus r^* achieves a MSE rate of convergence better than \hat{r} .

The following (3.17) and (3.18) are immediate consequences of (3.15) and (3.16).

Corollary 3.1. (Weak consistency). Under the conditions of Theorem 3.1 and (3.13), for every sequence $\alpha_n \rightarrow \infty$

$$(3.17) \quad |\hat{r}(x) - r(x)| = o(n^{-s/1+2s} c_n(x) \cdot \alpha_n) \quad \text{in prob.}$$

and

$$(3.18) \quad |\hat{r}^*(x) - r(x)| = o(n^{-1/1+2s} \alpha_n) \quad \text{in prob.}$$

Remark 3.5. It is clear from the results in (3.0), (3.14), (3.17) and (3.18) that larger the s the better the rate of convergence. However, choosing a larger value of s means putting more restrictions on h and g . Further, any choice of s more than 4 or 5 makes the computation of \hat{h} and \hat{g} difficult. It is seen quite often in the case of density estimates that the improvement in the rate of convergence with an s being 5 or more is not significant compared to the extra difficulty one incurs in the computation of the estimates. The same is expected in the case of regression estimates.

4. Uniform consistencies

In Section 3 we proved the mean square consistency and deduced the consistency in probability of the estimators \hat{r} and r^* at a point x , and in each case we investigated the speed of convergence. In this section we plan to prove

the uniform mean square consistency as well as the uniform consistency of \hat{r} and r^* . The following Theorem follows directly from the proof of Theorem 3.1.

Theorem 4.1. Let B be any subset of the real line such that $\inf_{x \in B} g(x) > 0$ and $\sup_{x \in B} |r(x)| < \infty$ (the bounds in respective cases need not be known), and p, h_s and g_s are uniformly continuous on B . Then

$$(4.1) \quad \sup_{x \in B} E(\hat{r}(x) - r(x))^2 = O(\gamma_n \cdot c_n^{*2})$$

where $c_n^* = \sup_{x \in B} c_n(x)$, and γ_n is as defined in Theorem 3.1. Also

$$(4.2) \quad \sup_{x \in B} E(r^*(x) - r(x))^2 = O(\gamma_n).$$

Thus if δ and n are proportional to $n^{-1/(1+2s)}$, then

$$(4.1)' \quad \sup_{x \in B} \text{MSE}(\hat{r}(x)) = O(n^{-2/s/(1+2s)} \cdot c_n^{*2})$$

and

$$(4.2)' \quad \sup_{x \in B} \text{MSE}(r^*(x)) = O(n^{-2s/(1+2s)}).$$

The result (4.1) or (4.2) does not however prove the uniform weak consistency of \hat{r} or r^* . If the characteristic function of K is absolutely integrable and $E|Y|^2 < \infty$, then it can be shown (e.g. see Singh and Ullah (1985)), that

$$(4.3) \quad E\{\sup_x |\hat{h}(x) - Eh(x)|\} = O((n\delta)^{-1/2}).$$

Hence it follows from Lemma 3.2 that if h_s and p are uniformly continuous on B , then

$$(4.4) \quad E\{\sup_{x \in B} |\hat{h}(x) - h(x)|\} = O(\max\{\delta^S, (n\delta)^{-1/2}\})$$

which in turn implies that

$$\sup_{x \in B} |\hat{h}(x) - h(x)| = O(\max\{\delta^S, (n\delta)^{-1/2}\}) \text{ in prob.}$$

Similarly, if the characteristic function of K is absolutely integrable and g_s is uniformly continuous, then

$$(4.5) \quad E\{\sup_{x \in B} |\hat{g}(x) - g(x)|\} = O(\max\{\eta^S, (n\eta)^{-1/2}\})$$

and

$$\sup_{x \in B} |\hat{g}(x) - g(x)| = O(\max\{\eta^S, (n\eta)^{-1/2}\}) \text{ in prob.}$$

To deduce the uniform weak consistency of \hat{r} and r^* from the above analysis, notice that as in the proof of Theorem 3.1, $|\hat{r} - r|$ is bounded a.s. by $|(\hat{h}/\hat{g}) - h/g| \wedge c_n + |r|I(|r| > c_n)$, and the proof of the lemma in the Appendix of Singh (1977b) gives

$$E \sup_{x \in B} (|\frac{\hat{h}(x)}{\hat{g}(x)} - \frac{h(x)}{g(x)}| \wedge c_n(x)) \leq 2(\inf_{x \in B} g(x))^{-1} \\ \cdot \{E \sup_{x \in B} |\hat{h}(x) - h(x)| + (\sup_{x \in B} |r(x)| + c_n^*) E \sup_{x \in B} |\hat{g}(x) - g(x)|\}.$$

Further, there exists an n_0 such that for all $n \geq n_0$,

$\sup_{x \in B} |r(x)| I(|r(x)| > c_n(x)) \equiv 0$ (this follows because $\sup_{x \in B} |r(x)| < \infty$, though the upper bound need not be known, and $c_n(x) \rightarrow \infty$ for each x in B). From these analyses and (4.4) and (4.5) we conclude the following theorem.

Theorem 4.2. Let $E|Y|^2 < \infty$, and for a subset B of the real line, the hypothesis of Theorem 4.1 hold. Then

$$(4.6) \quad E\{\sup_{x \in B} |\hat{r}(x) - r(x)|\} = O(\gamma_n^{1/2} \cdot c_n^*)$$

and

$$(4.7) \quad E\{\sup_{x \in B} |r^*(x) - r(x)|\} = O(\gamma_n^{1/2}).$$

Thus from (4.6), $\sup_{x \in B} |\hat{r}(x) - r(x)| = O(\gamma_n^{1/2} c_n^*)$ in probability, and from (4.7), $\sup_{x \in B} |r^*(x) - r(x)| = O(\gamma_n^{1/2})$ in probability. Taking δ and n proportional to $n^{-1/(1+2s)}$, γ_n is of the order $n^{-2/(1+2s)}$.

5. SOME CONCLUDING REMARKS

The choice of c_n in the definition of our estimator \hat{r} is completely arbitrary, and it is not possible to give an explicit formula to determine a value of c_n which may fit well in all practical situations. If, however, in a particular situation, we have some knowledge, say A_0 , of the range of the possible values of the response variable

Y, we may choose $c_n(x) \equiv A_0 \alpha_n$ where α_n is a slowly converging to infinity sequence of n , something like $\log n$ or $\log \log n$ (depending on how good is our knowledge about the range of Y). In any case, c_n must be chosen so that $n^{-s/(1+2s)} c_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Examining the asymptotic expressions of $MSE(\hat{h})$ and $MSE(\hat{g})$ obtained in Section 3, we remark that one should choose K so that $|\int t^s K(t) dt|$ and $\int K^2(t) dt$ be as small as possible. This is also the case even if one uses the optimal δ and η given in (3.10) and (3.11) respectively, since with these choices of δ and η , $\min_{\delta} (MSE(\hat{h}(x))) \sim n^{-2s/(1+2s)} w_1(x)$ where

$$w_1(x) = (1+2s) \left\{ \frac{|h_s(x) \int t^s K(t) dt| \left(\frac{p(x) K^2}{2s} \right)^s}{s!} \right\}^{2/(1+2s)}$$

and

$$\min_{\eta} (MSE(\hat{g}(x))) \sim n^{-2s/(1+2s)} w_2(x)$$

where

$$w_2(x) = (1+2s) \left\{ \frac{|g_s(x) \int t^s K(t) dt| \left(\frac{g(x) K^2}{2s} \right)^s}{s!} \right\}^{2/(1+2s)}.$$

Now examining the optimal values of δ and η given in (3.10) and (3.11), we remark that δ and η should be proportional to $n^{-1/(1+2s)}$. (This has been pointed out in a number of articles on density estimates dealing with rates of convergence, e.g. Singh (1977, 1979).) Examining

the estimates \hat{g} , we see that $\text{var}(\hat{g})$ will be large whenever the $\text{var}(K((X_j - x)/\eta))$ is large, which in turn will be inflated when $\text{var}(X_j) = \sigma_X^2$ (say) is large. To control this (and hence to control $\text{var}(\hat{g})$) to some extent, we remark that η should also be proportional to σ_X , that is, if possible, η should be taken to be $\sigma_0 \eta'$, where σ_0 is a good guess of σ_X and η' is proportional to $n^{-1/1+2s}$. We have the same view with δ as well.

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